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SOCIAL SUPPORT AND FACET SATISFACTION ACROSS CULTURES

A Thesis

Presented to

The Faculty of the Department of Psychology

San José State University

In Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree

Master of Sciences

by

Jeffrey Paul Berlin

August 2008

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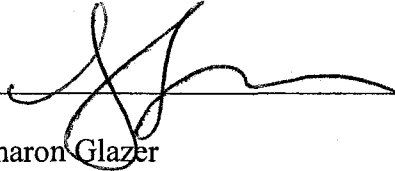
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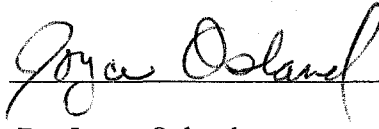
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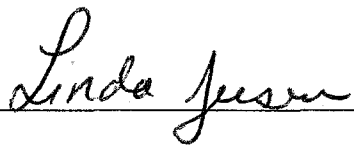
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ABSTRACT

SOCIAL SUPPORT AND FACET SATISFACTION ACROSS CULTURES

by Jeffrey Paul Berlin

This study investigates the relationship between three sources of social support (coworker, supervisor, and organization) and seven facets of job satisfaction (supervisor, coworkers, the organization, work environment, work content, compensation, and advancement opportunities) across five cultural regions. Self-report archival data from 46,518 respondents in Western Europe, Eastern Europe, Nordic Europe, Germany, and Anglo Nations are analyzed. Based on canonical correlation analyses, results show some support for cultural variation in mean scores on each social support source and satisfaction facet. Further, certain sources of support better relate to certain facets of satisfaction and these relationships are mostly consistent across cultures. Implications for theory and practice are discussed.

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INTRODUCTION

Job dissatisfaction, a first-level work-related strain (i.e., negative consequences of stressors; Netemeyer, Johnston, & Burton, 1990), affected roughly 10% of the workforce in 2006 (Davis, Smith, & Marsden, 2007). Job dissatisfaction negatively impacts employee well-being as manifested in second-level strains (Netemeyer et al.), such as psychological distress, substance abuse, anxiety, feelings of powerlessness, alienation, burnout, and depression (Ducharme & Martin, 2000; Ganster, Fusilier, & Mayes, 1986). This problem is further predictive of organizational outcomes, such as increased absenteeism and turnover and low morale, productivity, and performance (Rauktis & Koeske, 1994). Therefore, understanding factors influencing employees' job dissatisfaction will help prevent negative consequences for both the individual and the organization. In this study, the focus is on social support as a correlate of job satisfaction.

According to research (Babin & Boles, 1996; Baruch-Feldman, Brondolo, Ben-Dayana, & Schwartz, 2002; Ducharme & Martin, 2000; Ganster et al., 1986; Griffin, Patterson, & West, 2001; Himle, Jayaratne, & Thyness, 1989b; Kovner, Wu, Cheng, & Suzuki, 2006) social support increases satisfaction. This relationship is known as the Main-Effects Model (Beehr & Glazer, 2001). Support from supervisors, coworkers, and the organization positively relate to employee job satisfaction (Babin & Boles; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Other studies (Cohen & Wills, 1985; Himle, Jayaratne, & Thyness, 1989a; Kirmeyer & Dougherty, 1988; Koeske & Koeske, 1989; Sargent & Terry, 2000; Wong, Cheuk, & Rosen, 2000) have shown that social support moderates

the stressor-strain relationship. Sometimes, under conditions of high social support, the relationship between stressors and strains, such as job dissatisfaction, is weaker than under conditions of low social support (Cohen & Wills). This is known as the buffering-effect model (Beehr & Glazer; Sargent & Terry). Other times, social support does not interact with stressors (e.g., Ducharme & Martin; Wong et al.). Finally, there are times when social support yields a “reverse-buffering effect;” the relationship between stressors and strains is stronger under conditions of high social support (Kaufmann & Beehr, 1986; 1989; Rautkis & Koeske, 1994).

Beehr and Glazer (2001) propose that cultural variation, as well as matching specific stressors and strains with the type and source of support matters (Cohen & Wills, 1985; Viswesvaran, Sanchez, & Fisher, 1999). They suggest that culture, determined on the basis of cultural values, affects which sources and types of support are most frequently available, deemed appropriate, and effective. In other words, people in various “cultures will endorse or reject certain types and sources of social support, thereby indirectly affecting the effectiveness of any given social support mechanism” (Beehr & Glazer, p. 110). Glazer’s (2006) empirical study on supervisor emotional support and coworker instrumental support across five cultural regions provided evidence in support of Beehr and Glazer’s contention.

Matching social support type or source with the stressor and/or strain, however, has not been adequately addressed. In this study, therefore, I examine which type/source of social support best relates with various facets of satisfaction. In addition, in different cultures, the type or source of social support that relates to stressors and strains may

differ. In other words, only certain types and sources of support would relate to certain facets of satisfaction and this may differ across cultures.

The present paper addresses if there is credence to the argument that culture and matching support type/source with satisfaction matters. The three goals of this paper are:

1) to determine if individuals' perceptions of social support and job satisfaction differ between cultures, 2) to match various types and sources of support to each of seven satisfaction facets, and 3) to investigate how these relationships might vary across five cultural regions. More specifically, the relationship between three types and sources of social support (supervisor support, coworker instrumental support, and organizational support) and seven facets of satisfaction (i.e., satisfaction from work content, opportunities for advancement, work environment, compensation, coworkers, supervisor, and the organization) across five cultural regions (Western Europe, Eastern Europe, Nordic Europe, Germany, and Anglo Nations) is examined.

Results of this study are expected to untangle the equivocal findings related to moderating effects of social support on stressor-strain relationships by addressing 1) whether certain types/sources of social support more strongly relate to certain facets of job satisfaction and 2) if these relationships are influenced by culture. If matching matters, then future studies could investigate which sources/types of social support moderate various stressors and strains specifically in certain cultures. Understanding how perceptions and receipt of social support differ across cultures and what facet of satisfaction it will benefit may enhance the quality of interactions among people in the global workforce (Glazer, 2006). This information can also help Human Resource

practitioners provide training and education to employees who either supervise or work with individuals of various cultures. If providing the appropriate and compatible forms of support indeed has a positive effect on certain facets of job satisfaction, both organizations and employees will benefit.

Subsequent sections of this paper will include theoretical foundations and hypotheses, definitions and explanations of key variables, methodology, results, and a discussion of the theoretical and practical implications.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Theoretical Foundation

People in different countries report different levels of social support from various sources and types (Beehr & Glazer, 2001; Glazer, 2006), as well as different levels of satisfaction (Sargent & Terry, 2000; Himle et al., 1989a; Wong et al., 2000, Griffin et al., 2001). Furthermore, certain types of support more likely relate significantly with certain facets of satisfaction differently across cultures (Blunt, 2001; Lincoln, Hanada, & Olson, 1981; Simonetti & Weitz, 1972; Slocum & Topichak, 1972; Spector & Wimalasiri, 1986). The present study, therefore, 1) matches various types and sources of support to seven facets of satisfaction and 2) investigates the relationships between social support types/sources and facets of satisfaction across five cultural regions. Specifically, the relationship between supervisor support, coworker instrumental support, and organizational support and satisfaction with (1) work content, (2) advancement opportunities, (3) work environment, (4) compensation, (5) coworkers, (6) supervisors, and (7) the organization across Western Europe (Belgium, the Netherlands, Luxembourg, Italy), Eastern Europe (Czech Republic, Slovakia, Hungary), Nordic Europe (Denmark, Norway, Sweden, Finland), Germany, and Anglo Nations (United States and United Kingdom) is examined. These country clusters or cultural regions were developed on the basis of numerous culture taxonomies that will be discussed below. However, because hypotheses for this study are based on Schwartz's (1999) culture value taxonomy (intellectual autonomy, affective autonomy, conservatism, mastery, harmony, hierarchy, and egalitarianism), the relative location of each cultural region according to Schwartz's

culture values research is presented in Figure 1. Schwartz's taxonomy served as the basis because it is the taxonomy on which Beehr and Glazer (2001) and Glazer (2006) developed their propositions regarding culture and social support. Four hypotheses will be presented throughout this literature review. First, I begin with an explanation of culture, followed by social support (and related hypotheses), job satisfaction (and a hypothesis), and the relationship between social support and job satisfaction (and hypotheses).

Culture

Beehr and Glazer (2001) defined culture as “assumptions of normative behaviors and behavioral rules, values, attitudes, feelings, beliefs, thinking patterns, role expectations, customs, symbols, and meaning assigned to works and actions (or inactions) that are learned and shared by a group of people” (p. 111). More parsimoniously, Hofstede (2001) stated “culture is the collective programming of the mind that separates one group from another” (p. 9). Cultural groups can be formed on the basis of environmental (climate, temperature, terrain, water supply, soil conditions, demographics), political (government systems, laws, military), economic (technology, industry, society, market, means of mass communication) and social (values, religion, language, education, group and family bonds, national symbols) conditions (Beehr & Glazer, 2001; Georgas & Berry, 1995; Glazer, 2002; Schwartz, 1999).

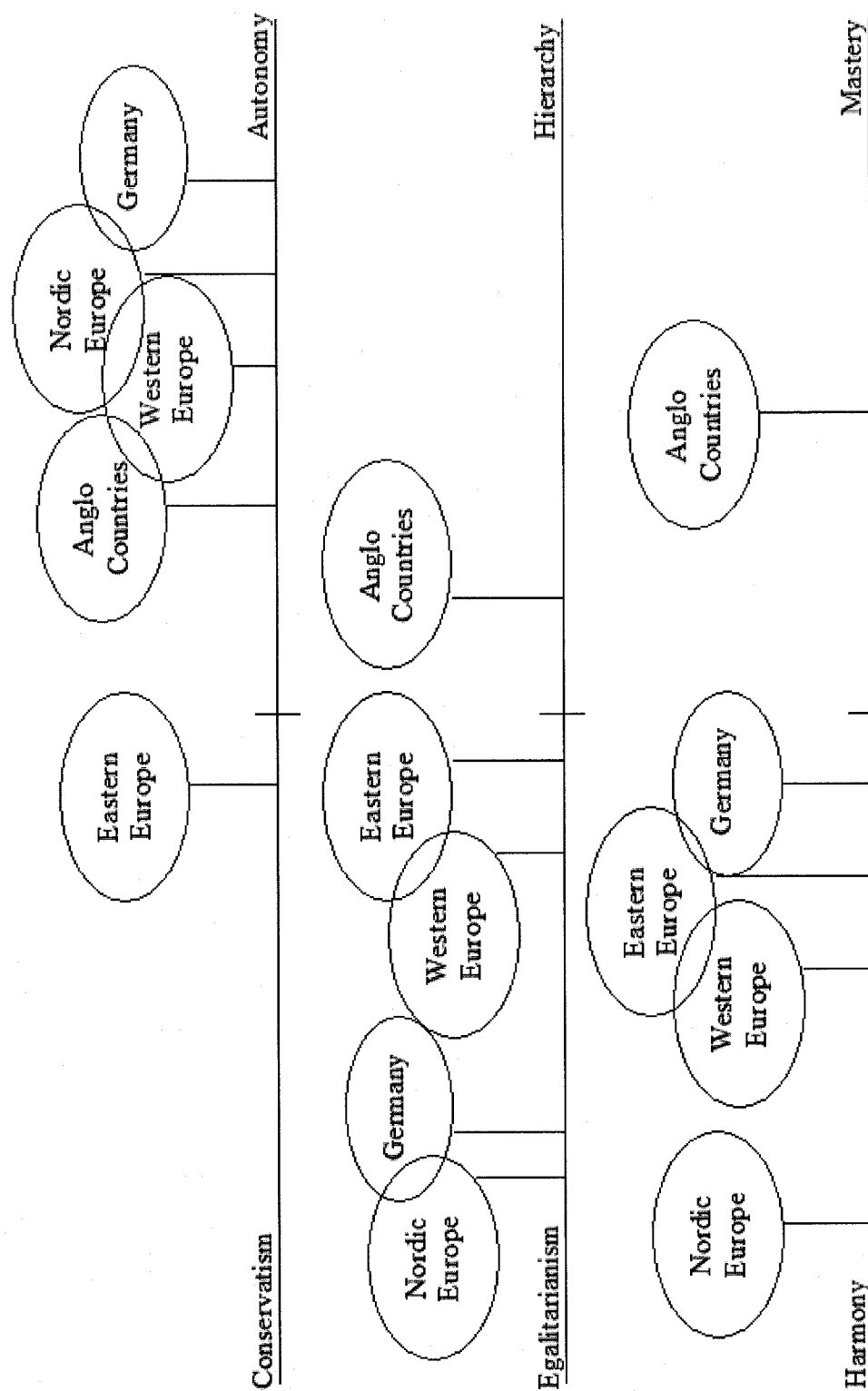


Figure 1. Relative location of each cultural region on Schwartz's (1999) culture dimensions.

Ecocultural Taxonomy. Georgas and Berry (1995) created an ecocultural taxonomy on the basis of six geographical and social indicators, that is, ecology, economics, education, mass communication, population, and religion (see Table 1 for definitions). All fourteen countries (i.e., Belgium, The Netherlands, Luxembourg, Italy, Slovakia, Czech Republic, Hungary, Norway, Finland, Sweden, Denmark, Germany, United States, and United Kingdom) in the present study are grouped into the same ecocultural clusters (i.e., factor) for education, mass communication, and population. All countries, except for the Czech Republic and the United States, are grouped into the same cluster for ecology indicators (i.e., temperature and precipitation) and all countries, except Italy, Germany, and Hungary, are grouped into the same cluster for economic indicators (i.e., GNP, energy consumption, employment percentages). Finally, the religion cluster is based on percentage of population declaring a religious persuasion. Eastern and Western Europeans are predominately Christian Catholic and Nordic Europeans, Germans, and Anglos are predominately Christian Protestant. Thus, from an ecocultural perspective, the 14 countries in this study are similar, relative to the diversity found in countries around the world.

Cultural Values. The manifestation of national policies and systems result from deep-seeded values (Hofstede, 2001). Cultural values are deeply engrained; they reflect implicitly or explicitly shared abstract ideas about what is good, right, and desirable within a society and can include perceptions of success, justice, freedom, tradition, and social order (Sagiv & Schwartz, 2000).

Table 1. *Ecocultural taxonomy derived from Georgas and Berry (1995)*

<i>Ecology</i>	a) highest monthly temperature, b) lowest monthly temperature, c) highest monthly level of precipitation
<i>Education</i>	a) total adult literacy; b) education at first level: pupil/teacher ratio; c) expenditure for research and expenditure for development, percentage of gross national product (GNP); d) enrollment ratios first-level education, e) enrollment ratios second-level education; f) enrollment ratios third-level education
<i>Economic</i>	a) GNP per capita; b) daily calorie per capita supply, percentage of requirements; c) consumption of commercial energy per capita; d) percentage of population employed in agriculture; e) percentage of population employed in industry; f) percentage of population employed in services; g) electricity consumption per capita in kilowatt hours
<i>Mass Communication</i>	a) telephones, b) radio: number of receivers per 1,000 inhabitants, c) television: number of receivers per 1,000 inhabitants, d) daily newspapers: circulation per 1,000 inhabitants
<i>Population</i>	a) Infant mortality, b) life expectancy at birth, c) crude death rate, d) crude birth rate, e) rate of population increase
<i>Religion</i>	percentage of population declaring religious sect

Cultural values guide people's behaviors in a variety of situations (Glazer, 2006) and provide a broad tendency to prefer one state of affairs over another (Hofstede). Schwartz (1999) states that cultural values are conceptions of the desirable that guide the way social actors select actions and evaluate people and events. Furthermore, they are the basis for social norms that guide people as to what is appropriate in various situations. Therefore, the particular cultural values a society endorses affects their attitudes about organizational phenomena, social support, and various aspects of their job. Because the various cultural groupings included in this study endorse different sets of culture values,

it is expected that perceptions of social support, job satisfaction, and the relationship between the two constructs will differ.

Cultural values derived through the research of Hofstede (2001), Schwartz (1999), and House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, and Gupta (2004) further guide the categorization of countries into cultural regions (see Table 2 for definitions of each cultural value). Cultural syndromes for each cultural region were derived by averaging individual country scores together, creating an overall cultural region score (see Table 3). Thus, on the basis of Georgas and Berry's (1995) ecocultural taxonomy, as well as Hofstede, Schwartz, and House et al.'s cultural values, the 14 countries in this study are grouped into five cultural regions (see Figure 1): 1) Western Europe (Belgium, Netherlands, Luxembourg, Italy), 2) Eastern Europe (Czech Republic, Slovakia, Hungary), 3) Nordic Europe (Denmark, Norway, Sweden, Finland), 4) Germany, and 5) Anglo Nations (United States and United Kingdom). These cultural regions are consistent with the organization's market unit structure with the exception of combining here the United States and United Kingdom into Anglo Nations.

Social Support

Social support is a complex, multidimensional construct encompassing a variety of forms, sources, and types. It is defined as the general presence of people who are considerate, respectful, and helpful to one another (Beehr & Glazer, 2001) and lead a person to believe that he/she is cared for and loved, esteemed and valued, and belongs to a network of communication and mutual obligation (Kirmeyer & Lin, 1987).

Table 2. *Culture Values*

Hofstede (2001)	
<i>Individualism</i>	describes a society in which ties between individuals are loose; each person looks after him or herself and one's immediate family.
<i>Collectivism</i>	describes a society in which individuals are integrated into strong, cohesive in-groups, which protect them throughout their lives in exchange for unquestioning loyalty.
<i>Masculinity</i>	describes a society in which social gender roles are traditional and distinct; men are encouraged to be assertive, tough, and focused on material success, whereas women are encouraged to be modest, tender, and concerned with the quality of life.
<i>Femininity</i>	describes a society in which social gender roles are equal; both men and women are encouraged to be modest, tender, and concerned with the quality of life.
<i>Power Distance</i>	describes a society in which less powerful members of institutions and organizations expect and accept unequal power distribution.
<i>Uncertainty Avoidance</i>	describes a society in which rules, policies, and procedures are clearly delineated in order to ensure little ambiguity of how to behave.
Schwartz (1999)	
<i>Conservatism</i>	importance placed on the status quo, modesty, fulfilling role expectations, and maintaining homeostasis of the group or the traditional order.
<i>Autonomy</i>	individual has choices and opportunity to be unique; flexibility in thoughts, ideas, emotions, and feelings.
<i>Intellectual Autonomy</i>	importance placed on independent pursuit of desired goals and creative ideas.
<i>Affective Autonomy</i>	importance placed on independent pursuit of positive affective experiences.
<i>Hierarchy</i>	importance placed on allocation, coordination, and differentiation of power, roles, and resources in the pursuit of wealth.
<i>Egalitarianism</i>	importance placed on equality and opportunities for all and providing help for the benefit of the welfare of others.

Table 2. (continued)

<i>Mastery</i>	importance placed on controlling the social environment and getting ahead through self-assertion.
<i>Harmony</i>	importance placed on fitting in with the environment.
House et al (2001)	
<i>Performance orientation</i>	the degree to which society rewards group members for performance improvement and excellence.
<i>Future orientation</i>	the extent to which society rewards future-orientation behaviors such as planning, investing in the future, and delaying gratification.
<i>Assertiveness</i>	the extent to which a society encourages people to be tough, confrontational, assertive, and competitive versus modest and tender.
<i>Uncertainty avoidance</i>	societies reliance on social norms and procedures to alleviate the unpredictable. Extent to which members seek orderliness, consistency, structure, formalized procedures and laws.
<i>Power distance</i>	degree to which members of a society expect power to be unequally shared. Extent to maintenance of inequality among its members through stratification of individuals into groups with respect to power, authority, prestige, status, wealth, and material possessions. Establishment and maintenance of dominance and control of the less powerful by the more powerful.
<i>Institutional collectivism</i>	degree to which individuals are encouraged by societal institutions to be integrated into groups within organizations and the society.
<i>Family collectivism</i>	the extent to which members of a society take pride in membership in small groups such as their family and circle of close friends, and the organizations in which they are employed.
<i>Gender differentiation</i>	extent to which society maximizes gender role differences.
<i>Humane orientation</i>	extent to which a society encourages and rewards individuals for being fair, altruistic, generous, caring, kind to others.

Table 3. *Cultural syndromes of study regions*

Culture values	Cultural Regions			
	Western Europe	Eastern Europe	Nordic Europe	Germany Anglo nations
<i>Hofstede's Culture Values</i>				
Individualism vs. Collectivism	Individualistic	Individualistic	Individualistic	Individualistic
Masculinity vs. Femininity	Masculine	Masculine	Feminine	Masculine
Power Distance	Low	Low	Low	Low
Uncertainty Avoidance	High	High	Low	Low
<i>Schwartz's Culture Values</i>				
Autonomy vs. Conservatism	Autonomy	Autonomy	Autonomy	Autonomy
Hierarchy vs. Egalitarianism	Egalitarianism	Egalitarianism	Egalitarianism	Hierarchy
Mastery vs. Harmony	Harmony	Harmony	Harmony	Mastery
<i>Project GLOBE Culture Values</i>				
Performance Orientation	High	Low	Medium	High
Future Orientation	High	Low	High	Medium
Assertiveness	Medium	High	Low	Medium
Uncertainty Avoidance	Medium	Medium	Medium	Medium
Power Distance	Low	Medium	High	Medium
Institutional Collectivism	Medium	High	Low	Low
Family Collectivism	Low	High	High	Medium
Gender Differentiation	Medium	Medium	Low	Medium
Humane Orientation	High	Low	High	Medium

Note. Reported cultural syndromes are averaged scores of the countries included in each region based on the research of Hofstede (2001), Schwartz (1999), and House et al (2001).

Cohen and Wills (1985) distinguished between structural and functional forms of social support. Structural support is the mere presence of supportive others in various life domains, including families, organizations, social, and religious groups (Beehr & Glazer, 2001; Glazer, 2006). It provides a sense of predictability and stability and therefore impacts a person's overall sense of well-being. Structural support addresses the presence of supportive others without indication of how these structures are supportive (Beehr & Glazer). In an organizational setting, structural support can be characterized by an employee's network of coworkers and supervisors without regard to the specific functions they may serve. In contrast, functional support implies that supportive people are performing some function for the focal person, such as praise, positive feedback, approval, or information (Beehr & Glazer). In other words, functional support is the actual provision of tangible or intangible support mechanisms. Functional support can be further divided into emotional and instrumental types of support.

Emotional and Instrumental Support. Emotional and instrumental support associate with different means of expression and outcomes (Beehr & Glazer, 2001; Ducharme & Martin, 2000; Glazer, 2006; Himle et al., 1989a). Emotional support is the provision of feelings of acceptance and care in a warm and friendly manner (Ducharme & Martin; Himle et al.). Emotional support can be provided consciously or unconsciously and can be as simple as listening to someone speak about his or her current situation. For example, Beehr, King, and King (1990) suggest that emotional support can help employees by highlighting positive aspects of work (positive thinking), allowing the employee to vent about negative things at work (catharsis), or simply taking his or her

mind off work by speaking about non-work life (distraction). An associated form of emotional support is referred to as esteem support and is characterized by the enhancement of the other's self-esteem by reinforcing the person's value and self-worth despite difficult situations (Cohen & Wills, 1985). Basically, the goal of emotional support is to make the recipient of support experience positive emotions (Beehr & Glazer; Ducharme & Martin).

Instrumental support is more directive and tangible than emotional support. It is defined as physical help that facilitates problem-solving or task completion by providing material assistance in response to specific needs (Beehr & Glazer, 2001; Ducharme & Martin, 2000; Himle et al., 1989a). This form of support includes provision of tangible resources, such as financial aid, directions, or supplies in order to assist in task completion and/or transfer of necessary information. An associated form of instrumental support is referred to as informational support. It is defined as the provision of information to help define, understand, and cope with problematic events (Cohen & Wills, 1985). In order for a person to provide instrumental support, he or she has to know what the problem is, have time to deal with it, have the appropriate skills or resources required, and perhaps most importantly, have the desire to help (Beehr & Glazer; Glazer, 2006). In an organizational setting, these various types of support can be provided by different sources, such as coworkers, supervisors, and/or the organization as a whole.

Coworker Support. Coworkers can provide emotional and instrumental support, which both have a positive relationship with job satisfaction (Ducharme & Martin, 2000; Himle et al., 1989b; Sargent & Terry, 2000). Employees experience extensive exposure

and interactions with their coworkers and therefore, maintaining positive and supportive relationships with peers is critical for a healthy workforce. Ducharme and Martin explain that coworker support does not only function as a means to peer-level social integration (i.e., social acceptance), but also as an avenue for efficient functional interdependence within a workgroup.

Supervisor Support. Support from supervisors often involves showing one's concern for and encouraging employees, providing key resources, a structured work environment, feedback, opportunities for career advancement, information, and assistance in coping with work-related stressors (Babin & Boles, 1996; Griffin et al., 2001; Jiang & Klein, 2000; Rauktis & Koeske, 1994). This source of support might be more important to the focal employee than other sources of support because of the supervisor's position of power and hierarchical standing (Beehr 1995, cited in Beehr & Glazer, 2001). It is also important for supervisors to coach and guide employees through self-assessment and goal setting (Jiang & Klein). Jiang and Klein focus on the importance of supervisor support on career satisfaction and note that this source of support is critical to early career success by increasing employee self-awareness and personal goal setting. Furthermore, if supervisors spread knowledge of career advancement opportunities and learn about employees' career goals, then supervisors can reduce turnover and improve performance.

Perceived Organizational Support. Perceived organizational support is defined as employees' global beliefs concerning the extent to which the organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986; Eisenberger, Stinglhamber, Vandenberghe, Sucharski, & Rhoades, 2002;

Rhoades-Shanock & Eisenberger, 2006; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Employees assign human-like characteristics to the organization and perceive it as having a favorable or unfavorable orientation toward them (Eisenberger et al., 2002; Rhoades-Shanock & Eisenberger). According to the rule of reciprocity and social exchange theory, favorable perceptions of the organization in turn affect employees' felt obligation to care about the organization's welfare, help it reach its objectives, and participate in extra-role behaviors (Eisenberger, Armeli, Rexwinkel, Lynch, & Rhoades, 2001; Rhoades-Shanock & Eisenberger). Furthermore, Rhoades-Shanock and Eisenberger found that employees trade effort and dedication to their organization for tangible incentives, such as pay, fringe benefits, esteem, approval, and caring.

The extent to which employees perceive their organization as supportive is influenced by promotions and developmental exercises (Wayne, Shore, & Liden, 1997), supervisor support (Eisenberger et al., 2002; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002), fairness, organizational rewards, and favorable job conditions (Rhoades & Eisenberger). Numerous positive consequences arise when employees perceive organizational support, including reduced turnover, absenteeism, withdrawal behavior (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Eisenberger et al., 2002; Rhoades & Eisenberger), and increased affective commitment and performance (Rhoades & Eisenberger). In addition, employees experience increased job satisfaction, positive mood, job related affect, and feelings of competence and self-worth (Rhoades & Eisenberger).

Supervisor Support and Perceived Organizational Support. The level of support from a supervisor influences employees' perceptions of the organization as a whole

because they (1) act as agents of the organization, (2) are responsible for directing and evaluating employees performance, and (3) convey this information to upper management (Eisenberger, Cummings, Armeli, & Lynch, 1997; Eisenberger et al., 2002; Rhoades-Shanock & Eisenberger, 2006; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Levinson (1965, cited in Eisenberger et al., 2002) suggests that actions of the supervisor are perceived as indicators of organizational actions and not personal motives, particularly if the supervisor's status within the organization is high. In other words, the higher a supervisor's rank, the more employees attribute the supervisor's actions to the organization. Thus, perceived organizational support is highly dependent upon the actions of direct supervisors and upper management.

Social Support and Occupational Stress

Research on social support has been conducted within the context of occupational stress. Scholars seek to identify the process through which social support has a beneficial effect on employee well-being, particularly in regards to the stressor-strain relationship (Cohen & Wills, 1985). In an attempt to determine how social support affects the stressor-strain relationship, two theories have been proposed: 1) The Main-Effect Model and 2) The Buffering Hypothesis.

The Main-Effect Model. The Main-Effect Model posits that social support has a beneficial affect on employees, irrespective of stressful organizational conditions (Cohen & Wills, 1985). Researchers have found that support from supervisors (Babin & Boles, 1996; Baruch-Feldman et al., 2002; Ganster et al., 1986; Griffin et al., 2001; Himle et al., 1989a; Jiang & Klein, 2000; Kovner et al., 2006; Noelker, Ejaz, Menne, & Jones, 2006;

Rauktis & Koeske, 1994), coworkers (Babin & Boles; Baruch-Feldman et al; Ducharme & Martin, 2002; Ganster et al; Himle et al., 1989b; Kovner et al.), and the organization (Eisenberger et al., 1997; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002) have a positive direct impact on employees' job satisfaction. These studies suggest that social support directly contributes to employee well-being.

The Moderating Effect. Social support sometimes moderates the stressor-strain relationship. According to the Buffering Hypothesis, social support relates to employee well-being and mitigates subsequent strains experienced as a result of stressful working conditions. Much research supports this theory (Cohen & Wills, 1985; Himle et al., 1989a; Kirmeyer & Dougherty, 1988; Koeske & Koeske, 1989; Sargent & Terry, 2000; Wong et al., 2000), whereas others do not (Beehr & Drexler, 1986; Beehr, Jex, Stacy, & Murray, 2000; Ducharme & Martin, 2000; Ganster et al., 1986; Himle et al., 1989b; Wong et al., 2000). In some studies (e.g., Kaufmann & Beehr, 1986, 1989; Rauktis & Koeske, 1994) the relationship between stressors and strains is stronger under conditions of high social support. Although none of these studies were cross-cultural (an exception is Himle et al., 1989b), the samples were derived in different countries, including the United States, United Kingdom, Australia, Norway, and Hong Kong, and therefore indicate that the buffering-effect exists outside of the United States.

The Matching Hypothesis. The matching hypothesis is a theory attempting to explain the inconsistent results associated with the moderating effect of social support in the stressor-strain relationship. The main proposition of this theory is "if the right kind of support from the right source of support is matched to the kind of stressors faced, then

specific strains will be reduced” (Viswesvaran et al., 1999, p. 318). Furthermore, only specific and appropriate measures of social support, stressors, and strains will indicate buffering effects and therefore, researchers should establish *a priori* the stressors, strains, and social support types/sources that would theoretically and empirically relate (Choen & Wills, 1985; Viswesvaran et al.). Certain sources and types of social support may be more effective than others in situations where they match the specific type of stressors or strains being measured.

It follows that the reverse buffering effect may occur because the person or source of an employee’s social support is the same as the person or sources of the stressor (i.e., Source congruence; Beehr, Farmer, Glazer, Gudanowski, & Nair, 2003). Further, support may not help and could potentially increase strain when the type of support does not match the type of stressor. For example, if an employee is seeking instrumental support (e.g., fixing a computer problem) and the support source provides emotional support (e.g., a pat on the back), this could increase the associated strains. These two examples indicate the importance of an appropriate match between the stressors, strains, and support types and sources. However, most researchers discuss this issue after the analyses have shown the measured social support doesn’t interact with the stressors to explain the strain (Viswesvaran et al., 1999). The present thesis establishes *a priori* hypotheses predicting how various types and sources of social support relate to various facets of satisfaction.

Social Support and Culture

Previous research (Beehr & Glazer, 2001; Glazer, 2006) suggests that the endorsement of particular cultural values will affect availability, appropriateness, receptiveness, effectiveness, interpretations of, and perceptions of social support. Therefore, no single source or type of social support will be universally effective across cultures. Because culture influences the acceptance of particular types and sources of support, it will also influence organizational consequences associated with the receipt of social support (Beehr & Glazer).

Beehr and Glazer (2001) purport that receptivity of types and sources of social support will depend upon the culture values endorsed. For the purpose of this study, the relationship between culture with receptivity of emotional support from supervisors and with instrumental support from coworkers will be investigated. Supervisor emotional support is believed to be more acceptable in societies endorsing Mastery, Autonomy, and Egalitarian culture values than Harmony, Conservative, and Hierarchy culture values (Glazer, 2006). Conservative societies emphasize group cohesion and status quo. Therefore, Glazer hypothesized when a supervisor provides individual emotional support it could cause the employee to lose face, disrupt group harmony, and reflect poorly upon the supervisor (Glazer, 2006). Furthermore, emotional support from a supervisor is discouraged in a society valuing hierarchy. In such societies, supervisors are expected to be distant from their employees and showing emotional support may be seen as breaking the authoritative barrier. In contrast, supervisor emotional support is congruent with cultures valuing mastery and autonomy (Beehr & Glazer, 2001; Glazer, 2006). In these

cultures, individual attention and recognition enhances self-esteem and employees appreciate being singled out. It may also indicate they are effectively mastering their environment. Glazer (2006) found that supervisor emotional support was greater among respondents in Anglo and Western European societies (Mastery, Autonomy, and Egalitarian) than Asian and Eastern European societies (Harmony, Conservative, and Hierarchy).

Although Glazer (2006) contends that supervisor emotional support is likely encouraged in societies endorsing autonomous values, the culture regions included in this study all value autonomy (Schwartz, 1994; 1999). Therefore, a hypothesis on this proposition cannot be formulated in the present study. Regions in this study may be depicted in terms of hierarchy values. Relative to each other, Anglo nations and Eastern European nations are more hierarchical than Western Europe and Germany, and Nordic Nations are the least hierarchical (see Figure 1; Schwartz, 1994; 1999).

Beehr and Glazer (2001) contented that supervisor instrumental support is compatible with hierarchical values because people are socialized to provide and accept instrumental support from in-group members without expectations of reciprocity. In egalitarian regions, the authoritative barrier between supervisors and subordinates is less significant; therefore, social support from supervisors may be inconspicuous and less noticeable. Thus, it is expected that people in regions valuing hierarchy will perceive greater supervisor support than people in egalitarian regions. More specifically, Anglo and Eastern European nations will perceive greater supervisor support than Western European nations and Germany, who will perceive greater support than Nordic Europe.

Hypothesis 1. Employees in Anglo nations and Eastern European nations will perceive greater supervisor support than those in Western Europe and Germany, who will perceive greater supervisor support than people in Nordic Europe.

Instrumental support from a coworker is likely to be compatible with harmonious, conservative, and hierarchical cultures (Glazer, 2006). In such cultures, coworker support is provided for the greater good of the group and the provision and acceptance of support from the in-group is socialized and implicit (Glazer). In the same vein, teamwork is an essential element to the attainment of organizational goals. In contrast, coworker instrumental support is less likely to be acceptable in societies valuing mastery, autonomy, and egalitarian values. These cultures value independent opportunity to pursue individual interest, and therefore coworker support could be seen as a hindrance. In these societies, social support is used to alleviate stress, not preserve harmony; therefore, coworker support could be viewed as less important. In Glazer's study, coworker instrumental support was greater in Eastern Europe (where Conservatism and Harmony values are endorsed) and Asian countries (valuing Conservatism, Mastery, and Hierarchy) than in Anglo Nations (valuing Autonomy, Hierarchy, and Mastery), Western Europeans (valuing Autonomy and Egalitarianism), and Latinos (central on the values).

Glazer (2006) found that countries valuing autonomy (i.e., Anglo Nations, Western Europeans, and Latinos) perceive less coworker instrumental support than countries valuing conservatism (i.e., Eastern Europeans and Asians). Although coworker instrumental support is likely discouraged in societies endorsing autonomous values, the culture regions included in this study all value autonomy (Schwartz, 1994; 1999).

Therefore, a hypothesis on this proposition cannot be formulated in the present study.

Glazer also contends that coworker instrumental support is compatible in societies valuing harmony and hierarchy and incompatible in societies valuing mastery and egalitarianism. The culture regions included in this study value egalitarianism (i.e., Western Europe, Eastern Europe, Nordic Europe, and Germany) where Anglo nations are relatively neutral. Due to these similarities in culture values, the following hypothesis will be based on the endorsement of mastery versus harmony values. Coworker instrumental support is likely discouraged in cultures valuing mastery because in such cultures, deep friendships are rarely formed (Beehr & Glazer, 2001; Schwartz, 1994). Furthermore, Glazer suggests that employees in societies valuing mastery forge fewer intimate relationships with colleagues and therefore, the purpose of support from coworkers is to alleviate stress, not preserve the harmony of the group. In Harmonious cultures, however, teamwork is essential to the fulfillment of organizational goals and the provision of coworker instrumental support is for the greater good of the group (Glazer). Thus, it is expected that cultures endorsing mastery values (i.e., Anglo nations) will perceive less coworker instrumental support than those endorsing harmony values (i.e., Germany, Nordic Europe, Eastern Europe, Western Europe).

Hypothesis 2. Employees in Nordic Europe, Eastern Europe, Western Europe and Germany will perceive greater coworker instrumental support than Anglo Countries.

Because there is no empirical evidence linking organizational support with culture, a research question is posed.

Research question 1. Do perceptions of organizational support differ across the five cultural regions?

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is a cluster of attitudes concerning various aspects of a job (Spector & Wimalasiri, 1986) and can be assessed using uni-dimensional (global) or multi-faceted measures (Rauktis & Koeske, 1994). Global measures of employee job satisfaction are limited in both their conceptual comprehensiveness and accuracy. They may be incomplete because employees can be satisfied with certain aspects of their job and dissatisfied with others. In addition, their response to the global satisfaction measure could potentially be biased by a recent specific negative event (Rauktis & Koeske). For example, a recent argument with a supervisor may mask one's true overall job satisfaction. To address this issue, facet measures of job satisfaction assess employees' attitudes towards specific aspects of their job. Locke (1967, as cited in Spector & Wimalasiri) determined four job satisfaction facets: 1) Rewards (pay and promotion opportunities), 2) Job context (job conditions and fringe benefits), 3) Agents (supervisors and coworkers), and 4) Work (content of job itself). Although Locke's paper was written 41 years ago, these facets of job satisfaction remain relevant in organizational settings. In the present study, employees' satisfaction with compensation, work content, their supervisor, coworkers, the organization, advancement opportunities, and the work environment are assessed. These satisfaction facets do not cover the spectrum of possible facets, but they are more comprehensive than a single, global measure.

Job Satisfaction Across Cultures

Although research on job satisfaction across cultures is limited, a few studies have found that culture plays an important role. Spector and Wimalasiri (1986) found differences in job satisfaction facets between Singaporean and United States computer technicians. More specifically, Singaporean workers are more satisfied with pay and promotion opportunities than US workers, and US workers are more satisfied with supervisors, coworkers, and the nature of work than Singaporeans. In addition, Singaporeans see coworkers as part of the nature of work because relationships between supervisors and subordinates are distant and formal. Probably for this reason, coworkers and supervisor items are not related. In contrast, in the United States, relationships between supervisors and subordinates are friendly with less emphasis on hierarchical standing. Therefore, Americans may think of supervisors when responding to questions about coworkers (Spector and Wimalasiri). This indicates that various facets of work-related satisfaction will be more dominant in some countries than others and that culture may influence the facets of satisfaction reported to be most satisfying. Blunt (2001) found that managers in England, United States, Australia, Denmark, Germany, France, Italy, South Africa, Argentina, Chile, and India differ in their level of need satisfaction. Differences in perceived work satisfaction (a composite score consisting of satisfaction with supervisor, subordinates, tasks, coworkers, local and regional organization) were found between Japanese and U.S. bank, trading company, manufacturing enterprise, and distribution workers; Japanese bankers are less satisfied than their American coworkers (Lincoln et al., 1981). Need satisfaction (security, social, esteem, autonomy, and self-

actualization needs) was greater among Mexican glass company workers than their United States counterparts (Slocum & Topichak, 1972). Finally, Simonetti and Weitz (1972) found that Japanese sales representatives perceive intrinsic (job security, work environment, benefits, work-life balance) and extrinsic (advancement opportunities, recognition, work content) facets of job satisfaction to be of equal importance, whereas Canadian and Argentinean sales representatives perceive intrinsic facets of job satisfaction to be almost twice as important as extrinsic facets. These studies provide evidence that perceptions of the various facets of job satisfaction differ in magnitude across countries.

Since there is little empirical research on cultural differences in job satisfaction (exceptions include, Blunt, 2001; Lincoln et al., 1981; Simonetti & Weitz, 1972; Slocum & Topichak, 1972), and since none have compared facets of satisfaction across cultures, differences in perceptions of the various satisfaction facets across the five cultural regions will be explored.

Research question 2. Do perceptions of satisfaction facets differ across the five cultural regions?

Social Support and Job Satisfaction

Researchers investigating the relationship between social support and job satisfaction use a variety of measures, but most utilize a global measure of job satisfaction, which limits the amount of information one can derive from the findings. The literature clearly illustrates that general job satisfaction relates to both instrumental and emotional support from supervisors and coworkers (Babin & Boles, 1996; Baruch-

Feldman et al., 2002; Ducharme & Martin, 2000; Ganster et al., 1986; Griffin et al., 2001; Himle et al., 1989b; Kovner et al., 2006). Although it is important to understand that support from supervisors and coworkers has an overall beneficial effect on employees' general job satisfaction, these particular studies do not provide insight into what specific aspects of a job these support mechanisms influence.

As it is important to match the appropriate stressor and support measures (Beehr & Glazer, 2001; Cohen & Wills, 1985; Viswesvaran et al., 1999), it is also valuable to match the appropriate support and satisfaction measures. It is expected that specific sources of support will relate to satisfaction facets under the support source's realm of control (e.g., supervisor support and satisfaction with work content). Therefore, this study will address the gaps in the literature by developing *a priori* hypotheses as to which support sources will relate to various facets of satisfaction. Although studies investigating the relationship between social support and specific facets of satisfaction are sparse, a few do exist. Rauktis and Koeske (1994) found that supervisor emotional support positively relates to general job satisfaction, intrinsic job satisfaction, satisfaction with compensation, and satisfaction with opportunities for advancement. Jiang and Klein (2000) found informational and emotional support from the supervisor to positively relate with employee career satisfaction. These studies give credence to matching specific types and sources of support with specific facets of job satisfaction. The current research extends this literature by studying various sources and types of support in relation to seven facets of satisfaction.

Social Support and Job Satisfaction Across Cultures

Despite an abundance of literature illustrating the positive relationship between social support and job satisfaction, little has been done within the context of culture (for exceptions, see Antonucci, Fuhrer, & Jackson, 1990; Beehr & Glazer, 2001; Glazer, 2006; Goodwin & Plaza, 2000; Himle et al., 1989b). Nonetheless, a small number of single-country studies have found this positive relationship amongst samples outside the United States, such as Australia (Sargent & Terry, 2000), Norway (Himle et al., 1989a), Hong Kong (Wong et al., 2000), and the United Kingdom (Griffin et al., 2001). Given the evidence of a positive relationship between social support and job satisfaction within various cultures, a comparative study would demonstrate cultures influence on the relationship.

Some scholars (e.g., Cohen & Wills, 1995; Beehr & Glazer, 2001) note the importance of matching the appropriate support mechanism with the variable of interest (e.g., supervisor support with supervisor workload). However, most studies investigating the relationship between social support and other variables seem to give little consideration to appropriately matching the associated measures. Therefore, in this study I examine which support mechanisms relate most strongly with various facets of satisfaction. It is expected that each support source will relate most strongly with its corresponding satisfaction facet (e.g., supervisor support most strongly correlates with supervisor satisfaction). Additionally, to determine the affect of culture, these relationships will be examined across all cultural regions. It is expected that culture will not affect these relationships.

Hypothesis 3. (a) Supervisor support will correlate most strongly with satisfaction with the supervisor, (b) coworker support will correlate most strongly with satisfaction with coworkers, (c) organizational support will correlate most strongly with satisfaction with the organization, and (d) these relationships will be similar across the five cultural regions.

Further, studies (e.g., Babin & Boles, 1996; Baruch-Feldman et al., 2002; Ducharme & Martin, 2000; Ganster et al., 1986; Griffin et al., 2001; Himle et al., 1989a, 1989b; Kovner et al., 2006; Sargent & Terry, 2000; Wong et al., 2000) have shown that social support relates with different, non-matching outcomes, and those that might correspond perfectly, may not be relevant outcomes to the organization. Therefore, I examine which sources/types of social support most strongly correlate with other facets of satisfaction. It is expected that certain sources of support will relate to facets of satisfaction in which those sources may have an influence and these relationships are expected to be similar across the five cultural regions.

Hypothesis 4. (a) Supervisor and organizational support will relate with (i) satisfaction with work content, (ii) satisfaction with advancement opportunities, (iii) satisfaction with compensation, and (iv) satisfaction with the physical work environment. (b) These relationships will be similar across cultures.

METHODS

Participants

Employees at various locations in a multinational energy-producing organization, headquartered in Germany, completed a company-wide survey in 2004. The survey was distributed to 55,378 participants across 14 countries and 46,518 surveys were returned for a response rate of 84%. Of these, 67 were missing a large percentage of data and were therefore omitted from analysis. Final analyses were based on a total sample of 46,451 respondents from 14 countries.

Over half the respondents were from German branches of the company ($n = 28,605$, 61.6%). Western Europe is comprised of The Netherlands, Luxembourg, Belgium ($n = 493$, 1.1%) and Italy ($n = 12$, .0%). Eastern Europe is comprised of Czech Republic ($n = 2,472$, 5.3%), Hungary ($n = 2,512$, 5.4%), and Slovakia ($n = 90$, .0%). Nordic Europe is comprised of Finland ($n = 279$, .6%), Norway ($n = 8$, .0%), Sweden ($n = 3,026$, 6.5%), and Denmark ($n = 532$, 1.1%). Finally, the Anglo nations are comprised of United States ($n = 3,095$, 6.7%) and United Kingdom ($n = 5,327$, 11.5%). It is important to note that The Netherlands, Luxembourg, and Belgium were combined into one region in the archival data set and therefore could not be teased apart for individual analysis.

Demographic information was not obtained from the 13 European countries because of strict employment laws preventing the collection of such non-work related information. Job level demographics, however, were available and of the total sample, .3% were “top management,” 1.7% were “senior management,” 3.4% were

“management,” 6.8% were “team leaders,” 23.1% were “industrial workers,” 50.8% were “clerical workers,” and 3% were “trainees/apprentices.” The United States sample consisted of 3,095 respondents, which is 6.7% of the total sample. Of these, 71.6% were men, 91.8% were White, and 17.4% were employed 1-5 years, 14.8% were employed 5-10 years, 26.6% were employed 10-20 years, and 39.7% were employed 20 years or more. Despite the lack of specific demographic information for the European countries, the most critical feature of this sample is that the workers are in the same industry (Hofstede, 2001).

Measures

The original survey and data set contained 192 items reflecting multiple constructs, but the current study focuses on 14 questions pertaining to three types and sources of social support and 11 questions pertaining to seven facets of satisfaction (see Appendix A). All items had good face validity, construct validity, high inter-item correlations, and good alpha reliabilities within each region. Except for cosmetic adaptations of the jargon for the particular organization, these items were taken from standard instruments developed in Germany (see Borg, 2003; Liu, Borg, & Spector, 2004). All measures were rated on a 5-point Likert-type rating scale where higher scores represent higher levels of support and satisfaction.

Supervisor Support. Supervisor support was measured by the mean of participants’ responses to five items. These five items assessed different types of support (i.e., emotional, informational, and instrumental) and were therefore combined into one measure labeled supervisor support. The specific items measuring this construct are “My

immediate boss treats me with respect,” “My immediate boss keeps his/her word and promises,” “I receive adequate recognition from my immediate boss when I do a good job,” “My immediate boss often gives me useful feedback on how I can improve my performance,” and “My immediate boss is committed to the vision, goals, values and direction of the group.” The inter-item correlation between these five items ranged from $r = .46$ in Nordic Europe to $r = .75$ in Anglo Nations ($p < .001$ for each). Cronbach’s alpha reliabilities were strong for all five items, ranging from $\alpha = .87$ for Western Europe to $\alpha = .91$ for Anglo Nations (see Table 4).

Coworker Instrumental Support. Coworker instrumental support was measured by the mean of participants’ responses to three items. The specific items measuring coworker support are “My team members fully cooperate to get the job done,” “My team gets the support it needs from other teams to achieve its business objectives,” and “All of my team members produce good work.” The inter-item correlation between these three items ranged from $r = .38$ in Germany to $r = .62$ in Eastern Europe ($p < .001$ for each). Cronbach’s alpha reliabilities were strong for all three items, ranging from $\alpha = .61$ for Western Europe to $\alpha = .76$ for Nordic Europe (see Table 4).

Organizational Support. Organizational support was measured by the mean of participants’ responses to six items. These six items assessed different types of support (i.e., emotional, informational, and instrumental) and were therefore combined into one measure labeled organizational support.

Table 4. Descriptive statistics and correlations for total sample and cultural regions

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
<i>Total Sample (N=41,445)</i>												
1. Work content ^a	3.99	0.89	-									
2. Advancement opportunities	3.35	1.06	0.54	-								
3. Coworkers	4.09	0.83	0.40	0.31	-							
4. Supervisor	4.05	0.99	0.46	0.37	0.36	-						
5. Organization	3.80	1.05	0.43	0.43	0.30	0.41	-					
6. Work environment	4.14	0.78	0.51	0.41	0.32	0.34	0.39	(0.73)				
7. Compensation	3.45	0.92	0.38	0.43	0.23	0.25	0.34	0.42	(0.84)			
8. Supervisor ^b	3.89	0.88	0.48	0.43	0.38	0.84	0.46	0.39	0.32	(0.89)		
9. Organization	3.76	0.73	0.55	0.52	0.39	0.48	0.80	0.57	0.48	0.57	(0.82)	
10. Coworkers	3.86	0.75	0.45	0.37	0.75	0.38	0.36	0.37	0.28	0.43	0.48	(0.73)
<i>Western Europe (n=485)</i>												
1. Work content	3.99	1.08	-									
2. Advancement opportunities	3.36	1.23	0.52	-								
3. Coworkers	4.13	0.96	0.20	0.23	-							
4. Supervisor	3.99	1.13	0.47	0.40	0.31	-						
5. Organization	3.38	1.23	0.37	0.44	0.13	0.32	-					
6. Work environment	3.96	1.00	0.44	0.39	0.17	0.34	0.32	(0.74)				
7. Compensation	3.35	1.03	0.31	0.30	0.20	0.10	0.22	0.32	(0.79)			
8. Supervisor	3.79	0.96	0.46	0.45	0.30	0.82	0.35	0.33	0.17	(0.87)		
9. Organization	3.44	0.85	0.45	0.50	0.22	0.35	0.75	0.50	0.41	0.43	(0.79)	
10. Coworkers	3.82	0.87	0.33	0.30	0.66	0.35	0.25	0.27	0.25	0.38	0.36	(0.67)

Table 4. (continued)

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
<i>Eastern Europe (n=4,569)</i>												
1. Work content	4.02	0.82	-									
2. Advancement opportunities	3.44	1.03	0.55	-								
3. Coworkers ^a	4.21	0.77	0.42	0.36	-							
4. Supervisor ^a	4.25	0.90	0.44	0.39	0.39	-						
5. Organization ^a	4.08	0.96	0.45	0.44	0.34	0.45	-					
6. Work environment ^a	4.13	0.79	0.56	0.48	0.37	0.38	0.42	(0.78)				
7. Compensation ^a	3.28	0.95	0.49	0.53	0.33	0.36	0.45	0.58	(0.86)			
8. Supervisor ^b	4.13	0.82	0.48	0.45	0.42	0.85	0.49	0.43	0.43	(0.89)		
9. Organization ^b	3.94	0.71	0.57	0.54	0.43	0.51	0.80	0.60	0.61	0.60	(0.83)	
10. Coworkers ^b	4.02	0.70	0.48	0.43	0.77	0.44	0.42	0.44	0.40	0.50	0.54	(0.74)
<i>Nordic Europe (n=3,401)</i>												
1. Work content	3.92	0.87	-									
2. Advancement opportunities	3.28	1.05	0.55	-								
3. Coworkers	4.09	0.80	0.40	0.26	-							
4. Supervisor	3.89	1.03	0.38	0.37	0.31	-						
5. Organization	3.52	1.12	0.33	0.39	0.23	0.39	-					
6. Work environment	3.83	0.84	0.57	0.47	0.30	0.37	0.40	(0.84)				
7. Compensation	2.88	0.89	0.36	0.44	0.20	0.27	0.37	0.45	(0.82)			
8. Supervisor	3.56	0.89	0.41	0.46	0.31	0.78	0.46	0.43	0.39	(0.88)		
9. Organization	3.52	0.73	0.48	0.49	0.31	0.47	0.80	0.58	0.49	0.59	(0.82)	
10. Coworkers	3.82	0.71	0.45	0.34	0.75	0.34	0.30	0.38	0.26	0.39	0.42	(0.76)

Table 4. (continued)

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
<i>Germany (n=24,848)</i>												
1. Work content	4.02	0.83	-									
2. Advancement opportunities	3.38	1.00	0.52	-								
3. Coworkers	4.10	0.79	0.40	0.30	-							
4. Supervisor	4.02	0.96	0.47	0.37	0.38	-						
5. Organization	3.79	1.00	0.43	0.43	0.29	0.39	-					
6. Work environment	4.16	0.71	0.52	0.40	0.32	0.33	0.37	(0.68)				
7. Compensation	3.55	0.83	0.35	0.42	0.22	0.22	0.32	0.37	(0.83)			
8. Supervisor	3.86	0.84	0.48	0.42	0.38	0.84	0.42	0.37	0.27	(0.88)		
9. Organization	3.76	0.70	0.54	0.52	0.38	0.46	0.78	0.55	0.45	0.54	(0.82)	
10. Coworkers	3.88	0.70	0.42	0.34	0.74	0.38	0.33	0.36	0.26	0.42	0.46	(0.73)
<i>Anglo Nations (n=8,142)</i>												
1. Work content	3.88	1.08	-									
2. Advancement opportunities	3.25	1.23	0.55	-								
3. Coworkers	4.00	1.00	0.40	0.33	-							
4. Supervisor	4.10	1.09	0.47	0.38	0.35	-						
5. Organization	3.81	1.18	0.48	0.45	0.35	0.43	-					
6. Work environment	4.25	0.88	0.49	0.39	0.34	0.32	0.41	(0.77)				
7. Compensation	3.50	1.05	0.43	0.44	0.26	0.25	0.35	0.38	(0.85)			
8. Supervisor	3.99	0.96	0.52	0.44	0.39	0.86	0.49	0.37	0.32	(0.91)		
9. Organization	3.75	0.81	0.60	0.53	0.41	0.49	0.82	0.57	0.47	0.59	(0.84)	
10. Coworkers	3.71	0.91	0.48	0.40	0.76	0.37	0.41	0.41	0.33	0.44	0.52	(0.74)

Note. Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient are in parentheses.

All correlations are significant at $p < 0.01$ (2-tailed).

^a Satisfaction facets are items 1 to 7.

^b Support sources are items 8 to 10.

It is important to note that organizational support was assessed using questions pertaining to “the next level manager.” Research indicates that the level of support from a supervisor, especially the next level manager, influences employees’ perceptions of the organization as a whole because they serve as representatives of the organization (Eisenberger et al., 1997; Eisenberger et al., 2002; Rhoades-Shanock & Eisenberger, 2006; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). In other words, the higher a supervisor’s rank, the more employees attribute organizational support from their actions. Thus, organizational support is highly dependant upon the actions of upper management, and for the purposes of the current paper, “next level manager.” To ensure there was indeed a difference between supervisor support and next level manager support, a paired samples *t*-test was performed. Employees’ perceptions of supervisor support ($M = 3.89$, $SD = .88$) significantly differed ($t(43674) = 26.78$, $p < .001$) from next level manager support ($M = 3.76$, $SD = .73$). Therefore, the variables for these two constructs were retained for each.

The specific items measuring organizational support are “I have the tools and the equipment I need to do a good job,” “I can easily get the information I need to do a good job,” “I have trust in the Executive Board,” “My next level manager clearly communicates the goals and directions of his/her area,” “My next level manager and my immediate boss work together to accomplish common goals,” and “My next level manager keeps his/her word and promises.” The inter-item correlation between these six items ranged from $r = .18$ in Western Europe to $r = .80$ in Nordic Europe ($p < .001$ for

each). Cronbach's alpha reliabilities were strong for all six items, ranging from $\alpha = .79$ for Western Europe to $\alpha = .84$ for Anglo Nations.

Satisfaction with Work Environment. Satisfaction with the work environment was measured by the mean of participants' responses to two items. The specific items measuring satisfaction with the work environment are "I am satisfied with the health and safety standards in my working environment" and "Overall, I am satisfied with my physical working conditions." The inter-item correlation between these two items ranged from $r = .51$ in Germany to $r = .72$ in Nordic Europe ($p < .001$ for each). Cronbach's alpha reliabilities were strong for both items, ranging from $\alpha = .68$ for Germany to $\alpha = .84$ for Nordic Europe (see Table 4).

Satisfaction with Compensation. Satisfaction with compensation was measured by the mean of participants' responses to four items. The specific items measuring satisfaction with compensation are "The pay system of our company is clear and understandable," "I feel that my pay is appropriate and fair," "Overall, I am satisfied with my pay," and "Overall, I am satisfied with the benefits provided by my company." The inter-item correlation between these four items ranged from $r = .38$ in Western Europe to $r = .92$ in Eastern Europe ($p < .001$ for each). Cronbach's alpha reliabilities were strong for all four items, ranging from $\alpha = .79$ for Western Europe to $\alpha = .86$ for Eastern Europe.

Additional Satisfaction Facets. Five additional facets of satisfaction were assessed using a single item. The item measuring satisfaction with work content was "Overall, I am satisfied with my goals and responsibilities," with advancement

opportunities, “Overall, I am satisfied with my opportunities for advancement in this company,” with the organization, “Overall, I am satisfied with my next level manager,” with coworkers, “Overall, I am satisfied with my team members and the cooperation within my team,” and with the supervisor, “Overall, I am satisfied with my immediate boss.”

Procedure

This study utilized archival data collected via an organization-wide survey. Surveys were administered in 12 languages and all respondents received a survey in their native language. Questionnaire translation procedures included back translation and the more sophisticated TRAPD (translation, review, adjudication, pre-testing, and documentation) approach. The author, who is not associated with the company, subsequently used these data in the present study.

To test hypothesis 1, hypothesis 2, and research question 1 regarding similarity of perceptions of types and sources of support (supervisor support, coworker instrumental support, and organizational support) across the five cultural regions, one-way ANOVAs were performed. One-way ANOVAs were also performed to address research question 2, concerning whether perceptions of the seven satisfaction facets differ across the five cultural regions.

In order to test hypotheses 3 and 4, canonical correlation analyses were conducted to determine which support sources related most strongly with which satisfaction facets. Canonical correlation analysis allows the comparison of multiple independent variables with multiple dependent variables. In the first analysis, all variables (i.e., three support

sources and seven satisfaction facets) were included. To test hypothesis 4, a second canonical correlation analysis was administered, in which all but satisfaction with the supervisor, satisfaction with coworkers, and satisfaction with the organization were included.

In order to determine if any of the social support and facet satisfaction correlations across nations differed significantly from each other, the chi-square procedure for comparing sets of correlations was utilized. Any significant chi-square differences were further tested to determine between which countries the correlations differed significantly. Chi-square analysis takes into account variability in group size thereby allowing for comparison of correlations between groups.

RESULTS

Means, standard deviations, correlations, and reliabilities of all study variables panculturally and for each cultural region are listed in Table 4. As a result of the large sample size ($N = 46,451$), all of the study variables significantly ($p < .001$) and positively relate to one another. To test Hypothesis 1, 2, and research question 1, ANOVA was performed to determine the extent to which average scores in each of the five cultural regions differed in perceptions of three support sources (see Table 5).

Social Support Across Cultures

Hypothesis one was supported as supervisor support was greater among Eastern Europeans ($M = 4.13$, $SD = .81$) and Anglos ($M = 3.98$, $SD = .97$) than Germans ($M = 3.86$, $SD = .84$), Western Europeans ($M = 3.78$, $SD = .96$), and Nordic Europeans ($M = 3.54$, $SD = .89$; $p < .001$ for all comparisons, except between Germans and Western Europeans, $p > .05$). Hypothesis two was supported as coworker instrumental support was greater among Eastern Europeans ($M = 4.02$, $SD = .70$), Germans ($M = 3.88$, $SD = .70$), Nordic Europeans ($M = 3.81$, $SD = .72$), and Western Europeans ($M = 3.81$, $SD = .87$) than Anglos ($M = 3.71$, $SD = .91$; $p < .05$). Finally, perceptions of organizational support were greater among Eastern Europeans ($M = 3.94$, $SD = .71$) than Germans ($M = 3.77$, $SD = .70$) and Anglos ($M = 3.75$, $SD = .81$), which were greater than Nordic Europeans ($M = 3.51$, $SD = .74$) and Western Europeans ($M = 3.45$, $SD = .85$; $p < .001$ for all comparisons except between Germans and Anglos; Nordic Europeans and Western Europeans).

Table 5. ANOVAs testing for significant differences between regions on social support measures

Region	n	Supervisor Support			Organizational Support			Coworker Support		
		M	SD	α	M	SD	α	M	SD	α
Western Europe	485	3.78 ^a	0.96	0.87	3.45 ^b	0.85	0.79	3.81 ^{d,e}	0.87	0.67
Eastern Europe	4569	4.13	0.81	0.89	3.94	0.71	0.83	4.02	0.70	0.74
Nordic Europe	3401	3.54	0.89	0.88	3.51 ^b	0.74	0.82	3.81 ^d	0.72	0.76
Germany	24848	3.86 ^a	0.84	0.88	3.77 ^c	0.70	0.82	3.88 ^e	0.70	0.73
Anglo Nations	8142	3.98	0.97	0.91	3.75 ^c	0.81	0.84	3.71 ^f	0.91	0.74
F		285.28			211.75			153.34		
Significance		0.00			0.00			0.00		

Note. Multiple items were used to measure study variables and therefore alpha reliability coefficients are reported. All regions significantly differ from each other ($p < .001$) except for those sharing a superscript.

Facet Satisfaction Across Cultures

To address the second research question of how perceptions of the various satisfaction facets differ across the five cultural regions, seven one-way ANOVAs were performed (see Table 6).

Satisfaction with Work Content. Satisfaction with work content is greater among Eastern Europeans ($M = 4.02$, $SD = .83$), Germans ($M = 4.02$, $SD = .83$), and Western Europeans ($M = 4.00$, $SD = 1.07$) than Nordic Europeans ($M = 3.91$, $SD = .88$) and Anglos ($M = 3.88$, $SD = .108$). Significant differences were found between Eastern Europeans and Germans, Nordic Europeans and Anglos ($p < .001$), and Western Europeans and Anglos ($p < .05$). No significant differences were found between Eastern Europeans, Germans, and Western Europeans.

Satisfaction with Advancement Opportunities. Satisfaction with advancement opportunities was greater among Eastern Europeans ($M = 3.44$, $SD = 1.04$) than Germans ($M = 3.38$, $SD = 1.01$). Both perceive greater satisfaction with advancement opportunities than Western Europeans ($M = 3.36$, $SD = 1.23$), Nordic Europeans ($M = 3.27$, $SD = 1.06$), and Anglos ($M = 3.25$, $SD = 1.23$). Significant differences were found between Eastern Europeans and Germans ($p < .01$); Nordic Europeans and Anglos ($p < .001$). The sample in Germany was significantly different from Nordic Europeans and Anglos ($p < .001$). Western Europeans did not significantly differ from any other cultural region.

Table 6.

ANOVAs testing for significant differences between regions on means (SD) of satisfaction facets

Satisfaction Facets	Region					F^{\dagger}
	Western Europe ($n = 485$)	Eastern Europe ($n = 4569$)	Nordic Europe ($n = 3401$)	Germany ($n = 24,848$)	Anglo Nations ($n = 8,142$)	
Content	4.00 ^a (1.07)	4.02 ^{bc} (0.83)	3.91 ^{bd} (0.88)	4.02 ^{dc} (0.83)	3.88 ^{ace} (1.08)	50.7
Advancement	3.36 (1.23)	3.44 ^{fgh} (1.04)	3.27 ^{fi} (1.06)	3.38 ^{gij} (1.01)	3.25 ^{hj} (1.23)	37.9
Coworkers	4.13 ^k (0.97)	4.21 ^{lmn} (0.77)	4.08 ^{lo} (0.80)	4.10 ^{mp} (0.79)	4.00 ^{knop} (1.00)	52.3
Supervisors	3.99 ^q (1.13)	4.25 ^{qrst} (0.90)	3.88 ^{ruv} (1.04)	4.02 ^{suw} (0.96)	4.10 ^{tvw} (1.09)	90.3
Organization*	3.38 (1.23)	4.08 (0.96)	3.52 (1.12)	3.79 (1.00)	3.81 (1.18)	167.3
Environment**	3.96 (1.00)	4.13 (0.80)	3.82 (0.86)	4.16 (0.71)	4.24 (0.88)	222.9
Compensation***	3.35 (1.03)	3.28 (0.95)	2.86 (0.89)	3.56 (0.83)	3.50 (1.06)	574.4

Note. Regions that share a letter superscript significantly differ from each other ($p < .001$).

[†] F -ratio significant ($p < .001$).

*All comparisons significantly differ ($p < .001$) except between Western Europeans and Nordic Europeans and between Germans and Anglos.

**All comparisons significantly differ ($p < .001$).

*** All regions significantly differ ($p < .001$) except between Western and Eastern Europeans.

Satisfaction with Coworkers. Satisfaction with coworkers was greater among Eastern Europeans ($M = 4.21$, $SD = .77$) and Western Europeans ($M = 4.13$, $SD = .97$), than Germans ($M = 4.10$, $SD = .79$) and Nordic Europeans ($M = 4.08$, $SD = .80$), which were greater than Anglos ($M = 4.00$, $SD = 1.00$). Eastern Europeans significantly differed from Germans, Nordic Europeans, and Anglos ($p < .001$) and Anglos significantly differed from Western Europeans ($p < .01$), Germans, and Nordic Europeans ($p < .001$).

Satisfaction with Supervisors. Satisfaction with the supervisor was greater among Eastern Europeans ($M = 4.25$, $SD = .90$) than Anglos ($M = 4.10$, $SD = 1.09$), which were both greater than Germans ($M = 4.02$, $SD = .96$), Western Europeans ($M = 3.99$, $SD = 1.13$), and Nordic Europeans ($M = 3.88$, $SD = 1.04$; $p < .001$ for all comparisons except between Western Europeans and Nordic Europeans, Germans, and Anglos, $p > .05$).

Satisfaction with the Organization. Satisfaction with the organization was greater among Eastern Europeans ($M = 4.08$, $SD = .96$) than Anglos ($M = 3.81$, $SD = 1.18$) and Germans ($M = 3.79$, $SD = 1.00$). These samples were also greater on organizational satisfaction than Nordic Europeans ($M = 3.52$, $SD = 1.12$) and Western Europeans ($M = 3.38$, $SD = 1.23$; all comparisons significant, $p < .05$ except Western Europeans and Nordic Europeans; Germans and Anglos).

Satisfaction with the Work Environment. Satisfaction with the work environment was greater among Anglos ($M = 4.24$, $SD = .88$), Germans ($M = 4.16$, $SD = .71$), Eastern Europeans ($M = 4.13$, $SD = .80$), Western Europeans ($M = 3.96$, $SD = 1.00$), than Nordic

Europeans ($M = 3.82$, $SD = .86$; $p < .001$ for all comparisons except, $p < .01$ for Western Europeans and Nordic Europeans; $p < .05$ for Eastern Europeans and Germans).

Satisfaction with Compensation. Satisfaction with compensation was greater among Germans ($M = 3.56$, $SD = .83$) and Anglos ($M = 3.50$, $SD = .1.06$), than Western Europeans ($M = 3.35$, $SD = .1.03$) and Eastern Europeans ($M = 3.28$, $SD = .95$), which were greater than Nordic Europeans ($M = 2.86$, $SD = .89$; $p < .001$ for all comparisons, except between Western Europeans and Eastern Europeans, $p > .05$).

Matching Social Support with Satisfaction Facets

To test hypothesis 3 that a) supervisor support will positively relate to satisfaction with the supervisor, b) organizational support will positively relate to satisfaction with the organization, c) coworker instrumental support will positively relate to satisfaction with coworkers, and d) these relationships will be similar across all cultural regions, five canonical correlation analyses were performed. The overall relationships between the two sets of variables were significant ($p < .001$) for all cultural regions ($\lambda = .03$ in Anglo Nations to $\lambda = .06$ in Eastern Europe; see Table 7). Therefore, between 97% and 94% of the variance was accounted for by these correlations. Dimension reduction analyses indicated three canonical variates were significant within each cultural region (see Table 7).

Standardized coefficients (*coeff*) and structural coefficients (r_s) for these variates are listed in Table 8, 9, and 10. The standardized coefficients represent the unique relationship between the individual predictors and the criterion.

Table 7. Overall relationship and variates for first canonical correlation

Region	λ	F-ratio	Redundancy index	Canonical Variate 1	Canonical Variate 2	Canonical Variate 3
				R	R	R
				R^2	R^2	R^2
Western Europe	0.06	21, 1373.11	41.74%	0.89	0.73	0.61
Eastern Europe	0.04	21, 13454.83	50.61%	0.92	0.73	0.66
Nordic Europe	0.05	21, 10082.25	48.46%	0.91	0.71	0.68
Germany	0.04	21, 73550.13	47.71%	0.91	0.73	0.65
Anglo Nations	0.03	21, 23535.04	51.00%	0.93	0.76	0.68

Note. All relationships and variates are significant, $p < .001$.

The structural coefficients determine the predictor's independent relationship to the predictive function. With a recommended cutoff correlation of .30 (Lambert & Durand, 1975), supervisor emotional support (*coeff* ranging from -.44 in Nordic Europe to *coeff* = -.59 in Western Europe and r_s ranging from -.88 in Western Europe and Nordic Europe to r_s = -.91 in Anglo Nations) and organizational support (*coeff* = -.43 in Eastern Europe to *coeff* = -.50 in Nordic Europe and r_s = -.79 in Western Europe to r_s = -.90 in Nordic Europe) both had adequate standardized and structural correlations in the positive direction with the variates. As for the satisfaction facets, satisfaction with supervisors (*coeff* = -.37 in Nordic Europe to *coeff* = -.52 in Western Europe and r_s = -.82 in Nordic Europe to r_s = -.87 in Germany) and satisfaction with the organization (*coeff* = -.31 in Eastern Europe to *coeff* = -.40 in Nordic Europe and r_s = -.71 in Western Europe to r_s = -.82 in Nordic Europe) had adequate standardized and structural correlations. Therefore, the first canonical variate indicates that an increase in supervisor and organizational support is associated with greater supervisor and organization satisfaction across all cultural regions. By looking at the standardized and structural coefficients for the remaining two canonical variates (see Tables 9 and 10), it is apparent that increased supervisor, organizational, and coworker support positively related with supervisor, organizational, and coworker satisfaction panculturally. Therefore, hypothesis 3 was supported.

Table 8. *Canonical Variate 1: Standardized and structural coefficients for first canonical correlation*

Variable	Canonical Variate 1									
	Standardized coefficients					Structural coefficients				
	R1	R2	R3	R4	R5	R1	R2	R3	R4	R5
<i>Satisfaction facets</i>										
Work content	-0.06	-0.08	-0.05	-0.05	-0.09	-0.61	-0.65	0.61	-0.66	-0.69
Advancement opportunities	-0.10	-0.06	-0.09	-0.09	-0.06	-0.65	-0.60	-0.63	-0.61	-0.62
Coworkers	-0.17	-0.20	-0.19	-0.18	-0.17	-0.53	-0.66	-0.61	-0.64	-0.64
Supervisor	-0.52	-0.47	-0.37	-0.50	-0.47	-0.85	-0.85	-0.82	-0.87	-0.86
Organization	-0.35	-0.31	-0.40	-0.32	-0.34	-0.71	-0.78	-0.82	-0.77	-0.81
Work environment	-0.11	-0.11	-0.15	-0.12	-0.12	-0.57	-0.66	-0.70	-0.63	-0.62
Compensation	-0.13	-0.12	-0.11	-0.08	-0.08	-0.47	-0.66	-0.62	-0.54	-0.57
<i>Social support</i>										
Supervisor support	-0.59	-0.52	-0.44	-0.56	-0.53	-0.88	-0.90	-0.88	-0.90	-0.91
Organizational support	-0.44	-0.43	-0.50	-0.44	-0.44	-0.79	-0.87	-0.90	-0.86	-0.88
Coworker support	-0.20	-0.22	-0.23	-0.18	-0.18	-0.64	-0.74	-0.69	-0.68	-0.71

Note. Numbers in bold represent adequate standardized and structural coefficients (Lambert & Durand, 1975).

R1 = The Netherlands, Belgium, Luxembourg, Italy.

R2 = Czech Republic, Hungary, Slovakia.

R3 = Norway, Denmark, Sweden, Finland.

R4 = Germany.

R5 = United States and United Kingdom.

Table 9. *Canonical Variate 2: Standardized and structural coefficients for first canonical correlation*

Variable	Canonical Variate 2									
	Standardized coefficients					Structural coefficients				
	R1	R2	R3	R4	R5	R1	R2	R3	R4	R5
<i>Satisfaction facets</i>										
Work content	-0.03	-0.10	0.02	-0.07	-0.13	-0.05	-0.19	0.11	-0.13	-0.17
Advancement opportunities	-0.01	-0.03	0.02	-0.05	-0.02	-0.13	-0.19	-0.03	-0.18	-0.15
Coworkers	-0.01	-0.06	0.93	-0.04	-0.14	0.09	-0.05	0.71	-0.02	-0.13
Supervisor	0.93	1.09	0.21	1.07	1.13	0.50	0.50	0.14	0.47	0.51
Organization	-0.75	-0.74	-0.72	-0.79	-0.74	-0.56	-0.45	-0.41	-0.49	-0.42
Work environment	-0.26	-0.20	-0.18	-0.25	-0.24	-0.26	-0.25	-0.09	-0.27	-0.29
Compensation	-0.16	-0.15	-0.07	-0.11	-0.05	-0.29	-0.27	-0.12	-0.23	-0.17
<i>Social support</i>										
Supervisor support	0.90	1.15	0.20	1.09	1.21	0.44	0.42	0.07	0.41	0.42
Organizational support	-1.01	-1.10	-0.96	-1.12	-1.08	-0.60	-0.46	-0.36	-0.49	-0.43
Coworker support	0.00	-0.11	1.00	-0.04	-0.16	0.00	-0.11	0.64	-0.07	-0.19

Note. Numbers in bold represent adequate standardized and structural coefficients (Lambert & Durand, 1975).

R1 = The Netherlands, Belgium, Luxembourg, Italy.

R2 = Czech Republic, Hungary, Slovakia.

R3 = Norway, Denmark, Sweden, Finland.

R4 = Germany.

R5 = United States and United Kingdom.

Table 10. Canonical Variate 3: Standardized and structural coefficients for first canonical correlation

Variable	Canonical Variate 3									
	Standardized coefficients					Structural coefficients				
	R1	R2	R3	R4	R5	R1	R2	R3	R4	R5
<i>Satisfaction facets</i>										
Work content	0.13	0.01	0.17	0.03	0.06	-0.02	0.06	0.18	0.06	0.06
Advancement opportunities	-0.10	0.03	-0.09	-0.02	0.00	-0.07	0.01	0.01	-0.03	0.00
Coworkers	1.05	1.12	0.53	1.12	1.11	0.83	0.74	0.35	0.76	0.74
Supervisor	-0.46	-0.36	-1.14	-0.42	-0.25	-0.15	-0.14	-0.54	-0.13	-0.08
Organization	-0.23	-0.42	0.56	-0.38	-0.58	-0.21	-0.25	0.25	-0.22	-0.27
Work environment	-0.01	-0.07	0.20	-0.06	-0.08	-0.03	-0.02	0.17	0.01	0.00
Compensation	0.00	-0.12	-0.05	-0.06	-0.04	0.14	-0.08	0.03	-0.04	-0.01
<i>Social support</i>										
Supervisor support	-0.49	-0.39	-1.25	-0.41	-0.21	-0.16	-0.13	-0.48	-0.12	-0.07
Organizational support	-0.36	-0.65	0.78	-0.51	-0.76	-0.14	-0.20	0.26	-0.15	-0.21
Coworker support	1.13	1.23	0.58	1.19	1.22	0.77	0.67	0.35	0.73	0.68

Note. Numbers in bold represent adequate standardized and structural coefficients (Lambert & Durand, 1975).

R1 = The Netherlands, Belgium, Luxembourg, Italy.

R2 = Czech Republic, Hungary, Slovakia.

R3 = Norway, Denmark, Sweden, Finland.

R4 = Germany.

R5 = United States and United Kingdom.

Hypothesis 4a, that supervisor and organizational support will relate to facets of the job in which supervisors and the organization have an influence (i.e., (i) satisfaction with work content, (ii) advancement opportunities, (iii) compensation, and (iv) work environment), was mostly supported ($p < .001$) in each cultural region ($\lambda = .42$ in Anglo Nations to $\lambda = .50$ in Western Europe; see Table 11). Between 50% and 58% of the variance was accounted for by these correlations. Redundancy indices (27.65% in Western Europe to 36.56% in Eastern Europe) indicate that more than a quarter of the variance in the satisfaction facets is explained by the support measures. Although multiple canonical variates were significant ($p < .001$), only the first for each region explained a reasonable amount of the variance and is therefore the only one interpreted.

Standardized and structural coefficients for canonical variate one are listed in Table 12. Perceived organizational support ($coeff = -.71$ in Nordic Europe to $coeff = -.81$ in Eastern Europe and $r_s = -.92$ in Western Europe to $r_s = -.98$ in Eastern Europe) positively correlated with work environment satisfaction ($coeff = -.35$ in Western Europe to $coeff = -.46$ in Nordic Europe and $r_s = -.75$ in Western Europe to $r_s = -.87$ in Nordic Europe) across all five cultural regions. Supervisor support also correlated with work environment satisfaction for Western Europe ($coeff = -.43$ and $r_s = -.77$), Nordic Europe ($coeff = -.40$ and $r_s = -.83$), and Germany ($coeff = -.32$ and $r_s = -.78$). In Eastern Europe, only organizational support ($coeff = -.81$ and $r_s = -.98$) related to satisfaction with compensation ($coeff = -.38$ and $r_s = -.84$), but in Nordic Europe, both organizational support ($coeff = -.71$ and $r_s = -.95$) and supervisor support ($coeff = -.40$ and $r_s = -.83$) related to satisfaction with compensation ($coeff = -.35$ and $r_s = -.77$).

Table 11. *Overall relationship and variates for second canonical correlation*

Region	λ	F-ratio	Redundancy index	R	R ²
Western Europe	0.50	8, 980	27.65%	0.7	0.5
Eastern Europe	0.43	8, 9856	36.56%	0.75	0.56
Nordic Europe	0.46	8, 7514	33.33%	0.73	0.54
Germany	0.45	8, 55290	32.50%	0.74	0.54
Anglo Nations	0.42	8, 16542	34.86%	0.76	0.57

Note. All relationships and variates are significant, $p < .001$.

In Western Europe, Nordic Europe, and Germany, both organizational support ($coeff = -.72, -.71, -.78$ and $r_s = -.92, -.95, -.97$, respectively) and supervisor support ($coeff = -.43, -.40, -.32$ and $r_s = -.77, -.83, -.78$, respectively) related to satisfaction with advancement opportunities ($coeff = -.45, -.29, -.31$ and $r_s = -.83, -.77, -.77$, respectively). In Germany, organizational support ($coeff = -.78$ and $r_s = -.97$) and supervisor support ($coeff = -.32$ and $r_s = -.78$) related to satisfaction with work content ($coeff = -.33$ and $r_s = -.81$), but in Anglo Nations, only organizational support ($coeff = -.80$ and $r_s = -.98$) related to satisfaction with work content ($coeff = -.38$ and $r_s = -.84$). Both organizational and supervisor support related to satisfaction with work content, satisfaction with advancement opportunities, satisfaction with compensation, and satisfaction with work environment, but differed per region. Therefore, hypothesis 4 is partially supported.

Table 12. *Standardized and structure coefficients for second canonical correlation analysis*

Variable	Canonical Variate 1									
	Standardized Coefficients					Structural Coefficients				
	R1	R2	R3	R4	R5	R1	R2	R3	R4	R5
<i>Satisfaction facets</i>										
Work content	-0.28	-0.28	-0.14	-0.33	-0.38	-0.75	-0.79	-0.72	-0.81	-0.84
Advancement opportunities	-0.45	-0.22	-0.29	-0.31	-0.27	-0.83	-0.74	-0.77	-0.77	-0.76
Work environment	-0.35	-0.35	-0.46	-0.39	-0.39	-0.75	-0.84	-0.87	-0.81	-0.79
Compensation	-0.25	-0.38	-0.35	-0.27	-0.24	-0.62	-0.84	-0.77	-0.70	-0.71
<i>Social support</i>										
Supervisor support	-0.43	-0.28	-0.40	-0.32	-0.28	-0.77	-0.76	-0.83	-0.78	-0.78
Organizational support	-0.72	-0.81	-0.71	-0.78	-0.80	-0.92	-0.98	-0.95	-0.97	-0.98

Note. Numbers in bold represent adequate standardized and structural coefficients (Lambert & Durand, 1975).

R1 = The Netherlands, Belgium, Luxembourg, Italy.

R2 = Czech Republic, Hungary, Slovakia.

R3 = Norway, Denmark, Sweden, Finland.

R4 = Germany.

R5 = United States and United Kingdom.

Correlations Across Cultures

Based on a chi-square procedure for comparing sets of correlations, it was determined that all social support and facet satisfaction correlations differed across cultures; these correlations were further investigated.

An omnibus chi-square analysis indicated that correlations between supervisor support and satisfaction with supervisors significantly differed ($z = 158.09, p < .001$) across all cultural regions and between each pair of cultural regions ($p < .05$), except Western Europe and Germany.

Similarly, an omnibus chi-square analysis yielded significant differences ($z = 83.46, p < .001$) between the correlations of organizational support and satisfaction with the organization across all cultural regions. Pair-wise comparison indicated that the correlations significantly differed ($p < .05$) between each pair of cultural regions except for between Western Europe and Germany and between Eastern Europe and Nordic Europe.

Correlation between coworker instrumental support and satisfaction with coworkers also yielded a significant omnibus ($z = 4862.64, p < .001$) across all cultural regions. Pair-wise comparison of correlations indicated significant differences ($p < .05$) between each pair of cultural regions except between paired combinations of Nordic Europe, Eastern Europe, and Germany.

Finally, an omnibus chi-square analysis yielded significant differences ($z = 26.79, p < .001$) between the correlations of organizational support with satisfaction with the work environment across all cultural regions. Pair-wise comparison of correlations

indicated significant differences ($p < .05$) between Western Europe and each other cultural region, as well as between Nordic Europe and Germany.

DISCUSSION

The purpose of the present study was to investigate the relationships between various sources of social support and multiple facets of job satisfaction across five cultural regions. Studies have shown that social support can be beneficial (Cohen & Wills, 1985; Himle et al., 1989a; Kirmeyer & Dougherty, 1988; Koeske & Koeske, 1989; Sargent & Terry, 2000; Wong et al., 2000), detrimental (Kaufmann & Beehr, 1986; 1989; Rauktis & Koeske, 1994), or non-impacting upon strains (Beehr & Drexler, 1986; Beehr et al., 2000; Ducharme & Martin, 2000; Ganster et al., 1986; Himle et al., 1989b; Wong et al.), such as job dissatisfaction. In addition, Beehr and Glazer (2001) suggest the culture in which studies take place may have an influence on perceptions of these constructs and subsequent relationships. Therefore, two theories (i.e., matching hypothesis and culture's influence) were proposed to explain these inconsistencies. Using the matching hypothesis as the theoretical foundation of this study, it is concluded that matching source and type of social support with satisfaction facets and matching both of these main study variables and their relationship with culture is important (Beehr & Glazer; Cohen & Wills; Viswesvaran et al., 1999). These findings suggest that it is important to develop *a priori* hypotheses, matching source and/or type of support with the right facet of satisfaction within the appropriate cultural context.

The present study also sought to support the Main-Effect Model indicating that social support has a beneficial effect on employee well-being, while controlling for cultural context. As with past studies (e.g., Babin & Boles, 1996; Baruch-Feldman et al., 2002; Ducharme & Martin, 2000; Ganster et al., 1986; Griffin et al., 2001; Himle et al.,

1989b; Kovner et al., 2006), support from supervisors, coworkers, and the organization has a positive, direct impact on employee job satisfaction.

Culture, Social Support, and Job-related Satisfaction

Beehr and Glazer (2001) suggested that cultural values affect employees' perceptions of various organizational characteristics. Therefore, this study investigated how culture relates to perceptions of social support and various facets of job satisfaction. It is important to understand fundamental similarities or differences in these perceptions across cultures in order to design interventions for organizations.

Supervisor Support. In this study, the type of supervisor support assessed was a combination of instrumental and emotional support. According to Glazer (2006), people in hierarchical countries are socialized to accept support from supervisors without expecting anything in return; it is simply the supervisor's responsibility to provide support. Conversely, in egalitarian cultures, there is little authoritative divide; supervisors and subordinates treat each other as equals and therefore social support from supervisors is normal practice. It was hypothesized that employees in more hierarchical cultures (e.g., Anglo and Eastern European Nations) will perceive greater supervisor support than employees in more egalitarian cultures (e.g., Western Europe and Germany, followed by Nordic Europeans). This hypothesis was supported, suggesting that in more hierarchical cultures, the authoritative distance between supervisors and employees may facilitate the perception of receiving supervisor support.

Coworker Support. Glazer (2006) suggests that in cultures valuing mastery, employees forge fewer intimate relationships with colleagues and, therefore, support

from coworkers is provided as a means to alleviate stress, not preserve the harmony of the group. In harmonious cultures, however, teamwork is essential to the fulfillment of organizational goals and the provision of coworker support is for the greater good of the group (Glazer). It was therefore hypothesized that employees in cultures valuing harmony (i.e., Germany, Nordic Europe, Eastern Europe, and Western Europe) will perceive greater coworker instrumental support than employees in cultures valuing mastery (i.e., Anglo nations). This hypothesis was supported and as expected, Germans, Nordic Europeans, and Eastern Europeans perceived significantly more coworker instrumental support than Anglos. However, Western Europeans did not significantly differ from Anglos in their perceptions of coworker instrumental support. This may be due to the combination of the United States with the United Kingdom, which is part of Western Europe. Further, in Western Europe harmony is valued, but so are autonomous values, as with Anglo Nations. Further, according to Glazer, coworker instrumental support is discouraged in autonomous cultures.

Organizational Support. Perceptions of organizational support varied across cultures. Specifically, Eastern Europeans perceived significantly greater organizational support than both Germans and Anglos, all of whom perceived significantly greater support than Nordic and Western Europeans. Germans and Anglos did not differ significantly from each other, nor did Nordics and Western Europeans. That Eastern Europeans reported significantly higher perceptions of organizational support than people in all other regions is consistent with the findings that coworker and supervisor support is greater for people in that region, too. Perhaps Western and Nordic Europeans perceived

the least amount of organizational support because of their endorsement of harmonious culture values. They are socialized to maintain harmony with the environment and organizational support is implicit. Conversely, Germans and Anglos are socialized to master their environment and organizational support facilitates this tendency.

Research indicates a variety of positive consequences associated with perceived organizational support for both the organization and employees. Specifically, perceptions of a supportive organization are associated with positive behaviors for the organization, such as reduced turnover, absenteeism, withdrawal behavior (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Eisenberger et al., 2002; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002), and increased affective commitment and performance (Rhoades & Eisenberger). In addition, there are positive effects on employee well-being, such as increased job satisfaction, positive mood, job related affect, and feelings of competence and self-worth (Rhoades & Eisenberger). These findings are based on studies done in the United States and therefore cannot be generalized to different cultural regions. This study, however, found specific relationships between organizational support and various facets of job satisfaction across cultures.

Organizational support relates to 1) satisfaction with the work environment across all cultural regions, 2) satisfaction with compensation in Eastern and Nordic Europe, 3) satisfaction with advancement opportunities in Western Europe, Nordic Europe, and Germany, and 4) satisfaction with work content in Germany and Anglo Nations. Interestingly, perceptions of organizational support were not different between Western Europe and Nordic Europe or between Germany and Anglo Nations; this was related to

the satisfaction with advancement opportunities and work content for each of the countries.

Job-related Satisfaction Facets. For the most part, mean scores on facets of job satisfaction differed across regions. For example, Eastern Europeans perceived significantly greater satisfaction than employees in the other regions with all satisfaction facets except with the work environment and compensation. In contrast, Nordic Europeans and Anglos had significantly lower mean scores on their perceptions of all satisfaction facets. This highlights the importance of taking culture into account when studying organizational attitudes. If people in different cultures perceive facets of job satisfaction differently, then the extent to which job-related satisfaction facets will yield meaningful information may differ across cultures.

Matching Source/Types of Social Support with Facets of Satisfaction

This study did not directly test the moderating role of social support on the stressor-strain relationship, but instead determined if matching appropriate measures and cultural variation helps to explain the equivocal moderator effect findings in the literature. In order to test the matching-hypothesis, the relationship between social support measures and various facets of satisfaction were investigated to determine a) which support sources relate to which satisfaction facets, and b) how these relationships were similar or different across cultural regions.

In each region, each support source and satisfaction facet positively correlated. Moreover, the canonical correlations show that supervisor support (versus any other source of support) more strongly correlates with supervisor satisfaction than any other

satisfaction facet. Coworker support (versus any other source of support) more strongly correlated with coworker satisfaction than any other satisfaction facet. Finally, organizational support (versus any other source of support) more strongly correlated with organizational satisfaction than any other satisfaction facet. Further, the correlation between coworker support and coworker satisfaction was greater in Nordic Europe than in any other country. This could be attributed to the Nordic's strong endorsement of harmony values and employees being socialized to fit in with their environment (i.e., their peers and teammates). It is clear from these findings that social support relates to satisfaction with the support source more so than any other satisfaction facet. Despite the minor variation in Nordic Europe, these results suggest that greater social support relates to greater satisfaction with the source of support in all cultural regions studied.

Research indicates that supervisor support can involve various behaviors, such as the provision of a structured work environment, opportunities for career advancement, information, and assistance in coping with work-related stressors (Babin & Boles, 1996; Griffin et al., 2001; Jiang & Klein, 2000; Rauktis & Koeske, 1994). In addition, the extent to which employees perceive their organization as supportive is influenced by promotions and developmental exercises (Wayne et al., 1997), fairness, organizational rewards, and favorable job conditions (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Therefore, it was expected that supervisor and organizational support will relate to (i) satisfaction with work content, (ii) satisfaction with advancement opportunities, (iii) satisfaction with compensation, and (iv) satisfaction with the physical work environment and these relationships will be similar across cultures. Although these specific relationships were

found, they varied by cultural region. Supervisor support relates to 1) satisfaction with the work environment and 2) advancement opportunities in Western Europe, Nordic Europe, and Germany, 2) satisfaction with compensation in Nordic Europe, and 3) satisfaction with work content in Germany. Organizational support relates to 1) satisfaction with the work environment across all cultural regions, 2) satisfaction with compensation in Eastern and Nordic Europe, 3) satisfaction with advancement opportunities in Western Europe, Nordic Europe, and Germany, and 4) satisfaction with work content in Germany and Anglo Nations.

Due to lack of empirical research investigating the relationship between specific sources and multiple facets of satisfaction across cultures, these findings are exploratory and interpretations are limited. It would be overly speculative to assert why specific support sources and specific facets of satisfaction correlate in certain cultures but not others. Nonetheless, these results indicate that the endorsement of particular culture values has an influence on relationships and highlights the importance of matching appropriate support sources with satisfaction facet measures in specific cultures.

Implications

Theoretical. This study illustrates that particular sources and/or types of support better relate to certain facets of satisfaction and that these correlations can differ across cultural regions. The Main-Effect Model of social support was supported. As social support of a particular source or type increases, satisfaction with the matched facet (e.g., supervisor support with supervisor satisfaction) increases more strongly than unmatched support and satisfaction facets. Thus, instead of examining “general job satisfaction,”

there is now evidence that being specific with the satisfaction facet and the source of support is important. Greater social support yields greater satisfaction with the matched satisfaction facet more so than with an unmatched facet of satisfaction. In addition, these relationships were invariant across the five cultural regions studied. This study also investigated how social support relates to other facets of job satisfaction and although these relationships exist, they vary across the five cultural regions.

Practical. According to the results of this study, practitioners assessing organization's members' satisfaction must ensure that the source of support would have a relevant impact on the chosen facet of satisfaction. In other words, the source of support and facet of satisfaction should match. Not doing so may result in erroneous intervention or change strategies. In order for employees to feel satisfied with their supervisors, first and foremost they must feel supported by their supervisors. Supervisors should be respectful, keep their promises, provide adequate recognition and feedback, and foster a commitment to the organization. Similarly, to ensure organizational satisfaction, organizations need to provide adequate resources and information, establish trust, and clearly communicate goals and direction. This may also help yield satisfaction with the work environment. Finally, in order to ensure coworker satisfaction, organizations should encourage cooperation among team members and increase perceptions of quality work produced by all team members. When focusing on different facets of satisfaction, organizations ought to pay attention to potential differences in cultures because various sources and types of social support correlate with different non-commensurate satisfaction facets. Therefore, before implementing a specific approach, the culture for

support and the relevance of specific facets of satisfaction need to be understood.

Specifically, practitioners need to understand what types of support are related to which satisfaction facets in each culture.

Strengths of the Study

One strength of the current study is the measurement of seven specific facets of job satisfaction instead of a single, global measure. Global measures of job satisfaction lack conceptual comprehensiveness, specificity, and accuracy, whereas facet measures allow researchers to identify specific areas of employee job satisfaction and, therefore, draw more relevant conclusions (Rauktis & Koeske, 1994; Spector & Wimalasiri, 1986). In the current study, employees' satisfaction with a) the physical (health and safety) work environment, b) coworkers, c) supervisors, d) the organization, e) reward mechanisms (clarity and fairness of pay system, pay, and benefits), f) the content of the work itself (goals and responsibilities), and g) advancement opportunities were measured. In addition, specific social support constructs were measured. Supervisor and organizational support were measured using items assessing instrumental, informational, and emotional support. Coworker support was measured using items assessing instrumental support.

The sample size and organizational consistency is also a strength of the current study. Although no demographic data are available for the European countries, all employees work for a single, international organization. Therefore, the consistency of organizational culture, mission, and goals allows for more accurate comparability.

An additional strength is categorizing 14 countries into five cultural regions. The regions devised were based on three lines of culture value research (Schwartz, 1999; Hofstede 2001; House et al., 2004) and an ecocultural taxonomy (Georgas & Berry, 1995). Therefore, the identification of cultural regions is thoroughly justified and grounded in literature.

Limitations

Due to the archival nature of the data, shortcomings, such as lack of demographic data, lack of control and customization of the items, and a limited number of cultures, were unavoidable. First, strict labor laws prevented demographic data in the 13 European countries. Although these data are available for the United States, we cannot assume the information is representative of the total sample. The absence of demographic data inhibits comparison in terms of tenure, age, ethnicity, and sex.

Second, use of pre-existing measures prohibited customization and modification of items used to assess the various constructs. Although seven satisfaction facets were measured, a single-item was used to measure each of five satisfaction facets -- work content, advancement opportunities, coworkers, supervisors, and the organization. A single-item measure does not provide as accurate or comprehensive assessment as does a multi-item measure. In addition, reliability may be compromised through the use of a single-item measure.

Third, items used to assess organizational support refer to the “next level manager” and not “the organization.” Although researchers (e.g., Eisenberger et al., 1997; Eisenberger et al., 2002; Rhoades-Shanock & Eisenberger, 2006; Rhoades &

Eisenberger, 2002) assert that employees attribute high-ranking supervisory actions as actions of the organization, directly measuring organizational support would have been ideal. Nonetheless, a paired-sample *t*-test revealed that employees' perceptions of supervisor support significantly differ from perceptions of next level manager support (i.e., organizational support).

Fourth, an assumption of this paper is that work conditions and management are similar within each region. However, culture does impact satisfaction and perceptive support. Nonetheless, according to findings in this study, the relationship between a given source of support and its matched facet of satisfaction is invariant.

Fifth, the 14 countries in this study are not sufficiently representative of the world's national culture variations. In fact, four of the five cultural regions are similar in terms of Schwartz's (1999) culture values when compared to Latin America or Asian nations and thirteen of the fourteen countries are European. Further exploration is needed across more cultures. In addition, The Netherlands, Luxembourg, and Belgium were grouped into a single country category "Benelux" and the countries could not be teased apart for individual analysis. The Netherlands is culturally different from Belgium and Luxembourg (the latter two are more Harmonious and Egalitarian than the Netherlands) and should not be combined into a single "country." Although 14 countries were included in this study, over half of the respondents were from the German headquarters and other countries are not equally represented.

Future Research

This study provides evidence that matching support type and/or source with target (facet) satisfaction matters. When testing the Main-Effect Model, researchers should ensure that the source of social support matches the outcome variable. Furthermore, future research should examine the moderating role of social support on stressor-satisfaction relationships. Most likely, only measures of social support that match the predictor and outcome variable will moderate the relationship between stressors and strains; when source or type of support have no logical link to stressors or strain, no moderating effects should be expected. Therefore, future researchers should use the results of this study to help establish *a priori* hypotheses with commensurate measures for support and outcome variables. More studies on social support and stress-related variables need to be conducted cross-culturally with numerous differing cultures represented. It would be of great value to learn how the moderating-effect emerges in culturally different countries.

CONCLUSION

This study is a springboard for explaining the inconsistent effect of social support on the stressor-strain relationship. It illustrates how social support relates to specific facets of job-related satisfaction. No matter in which country an organization exists, job dissatisfaction can have a detrimental effect on both employee well-being and organizational effectiveness (Ducharme & Martin, 2000; Ganster et al., 1986; Rauktis & Koeske, 1994). Therefore, it is crucial to understand antecedents (i.e., social support) that increase various facets of satisfaction. After all, a healthy organization is, in part, a result of satisfied employees. By understanding what impact social support has on work-related outcomes across cultures, we can tailor training programs toward the type/source of support and the focal facet of satisfaction.

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APPENDIX A

Survey Items

Supervisor Support

1. My immediate boss treats me with respect.
2. I receive adequate recognition from my immediate boss when I do a good job.
3. My immediate boss often gives me useful feedback on how I can improve my performance.
4. My immediate boss is committed to the vision, goals, values and direction of the Group.
5. My immediate boss keeps his/her word and promises.

Coworker Instrumental Support

1. My team members fully cooperate to get the job done.
2. My team gets the support it needs from other teams to achieve its business objectives.
3. All of my team members produce good work.

Perceived organizational support

1. I have the tools and the equipment I need to do a good job.
2. I can easily get the information I need to do a good job.
3. I have trust in the Executive Board.
4. My next level manager clearly communicates the goals and directions of his/her area.
5. My next level manager and my immediate boss work together to accomplish common goals.
6. My next level manager keeps his/her word and promises.

Satisfaction with Working Environment

1. I am satisfied with the health and safety standards in my working environment.
2. Overall, I am satisfied with my physical working conditions.

Satisfaction with Work Content

Overall, I am satisfied with my goals and responsibilities.

Satisfaction with Advancement Opportunities

Overall, I am satisfied with my opportunities for advancement in this company.

Satisfaction with Compensation

1. The pay system of our company is clear and understandable.
2. I feel that my pay is appropriate and fair.
3. Overall, I am satisfied with my pay.
4. Overall, I am satisfied with the benefits provided by my company.

Satisfaction with the Organization

Overall, I am satisfied with my next level manager.

Satisfaction with Coworkers

Overall, I am satisfied with my team members and the cooperation within my team.

Satisfaction with Supervisor

Overall, I am satisfied with my immediate boss.

APPENDIX B

IRB Approval



**Office of the Provost
Associate Vice President
Graduate Studies & Research**

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To: Jeffrey Berlin

From: Pamela Stacks, Ph.D.
Associate Vice President
Graduate Studies and Research

Date: October 19, 2007

The Human Subjects-Institutional Review Board has approved your request to use secondary data related to human subjects in the study entitled:

"Social Support and Job Satisfaction across 14 Countries"

This approval, which provides exempt status under Category D, is contingent upon the subjects included in your research project being appropriately protected from risk. Specifically, protection of the anonymity of the subjects' identity with regard to all data that may be collected about the subjects from your secondary sources needs to be ensured.

The approval includes continued monitoring of your research by the Board to assure that the subjects are being adequately and properly protected from such risks. If at any time a subject becomes injured or complains of injury, you must notify Dr. Pamela Stacks, Ph.D. immediately. Injury includes but is not limited to bodily harm, psychological trauma, and release of potentially damaging personal information. This approval for the human subject's portion of your project is in effect for one year, and data collection beyond October 19, 2008 requires an extension request.

If you have any questions, please contact me at (408) 924-2480.

cc. Sharon Glazer, 0120

The California State University:
Chancellor's Office
Beverly Hills, Channel Islands, Chico,
Dominguez Hills, East Bay, Fresno,
Fullerton, Humboldt, Long Beach,
Los Angeles, Maritime Academy,
Merced, Monterey Bay, Northridge, Placer,
Sacramento, San Bernardino, San Diego,
San Francisco, San Jose, San Luis Obispo,
San Marcos, Sonoma, Stanislaus